

Why the long face? Static allometry in the sexually dimorphic phenotypes of Neotropical electric fishes

KORY M. EVANS^{1*}, MAXWELL J. BERNT², MATTHEW A. KOLMANN³,
KASSANDRA L. FORD² and JAMES S. ALBERT²

¹University of Minnesota, Department of Fisheries, Wildlife, and Conservation Biology, & Bell Museum of Natural History, 1987 Upper Buford Circle, St Paul, MN 55108, USA

²University of Louisiana at Lafayette, Department of Biology, PO Box 42451, Lafayette, LA 70504, USA

³George Washington University, Bell Hall 2029 G St. NW, Washington, DC 20052, USA

Received 28 February 2018; revised 13 August 2018; accepted for publication 14 September 2018

The evolution of sexually dimorphic traits is thought to have marked effects on underlying patterns of static allometry. These traits can negatively affect organismal survivability by creating trade-offs between trait size and performance. Here we use three-dimensional geometric morphometrics to study the static allometry of two species of sexually dimorphic electric fishes (*Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*) in which mature males grow elongate jaws used in agonistic male–male interactions. We also estimate jaw-closing performance between the sexes of both species to track changes in kinematic transmission associated with the development of sexual weaponry. We find significantly different patterns of static allometry between the sexes of both species, with males exhibiting more positive allometric slopes relative to females. We also find a negative relationship between skull shape and mandibular kinematic transmission in *C. samueli*, suggesting a trade-off where males with longer faces exhibit lower mechanical advantages, suggesting weaker jaw leverage. In contrast, males and females of *A. rostratus* exhibit no difference between sexes in mechanical advantage associated with facial elongation.

ADDITIONAL KEYWORDS: biomechanics – geometric morphometrics – gymnotiformes – sexual dimorphism – sexual selection.

INTRODUCTION

Sexually selected traits used as weapons in competition for resources, and ultimately access to mates, have evolved multiple times across the tree of life, and have produced a diversity of elaborate phenotypes ranging from the enlarged mandibles and horns of stag beetles (Scarabaeoidea: Lucanidae), to the elongate jaws or kypes in some male salmon species (Salmoniformes: Salmonidae) (Quinn & Foote, 1994; Crespi & Teo, 2002; Kawano, 2006; Emlen *et al.*, 2012). These weapons are often used to defend resources and settle conflicts between individuals through combat or display, and may also serve as an honest signal to potential mates about viability (Berglund *et al.*, 1996; Emlen, 2008). Sexual weaponry may also result in deleterious effects on performance or reduced survivorship, such

that trade-offs between the size of a weapon and survivorship may ultimately limit the range of phenotypic disparity (Zahavi, 1975; Stearns, 1989; Schluter *et al.*, 1991; Petrie, 1992; Gustafsson *et al.*, 1995). These trade-offs can also have marked effects on the underlying static allometries that build sexual weapons, such that differences in viability associated with increases in trait or body size can influence the static allometric slope of a trait (Bonduriansky & Day, 2003).

Static allometry refers to the log–log relationship between the size and shape of traits and body size across individuals at the same developmental stage (Cheverud, 1982; Pélabon *et al.*, 2013). The evolutionary mechanisms underlying static allometry within and among species, and the consequences of these mechanisms on trait shapes and related functions, have been extensively discussed (Gould, 1966; Emerson & Bramble, 1993; Bonduriansky, 2007; Eberhard, 2009; Pélabon *et al.*, 2014). Dimorphism in sexual traits is thought to influence the evolution of

*Corresponding author. E-mail: jacksonk@umn.edu

static allometry, with studies hypothesizing that traits under sexual selection should exhibit positive allometric slopes relative to traits that are not under sexual selection (Darwin, 1888; Petrie, 1988; Emlen & Nijhout, 2000; Emlen *et al.*, 2005). Positive allometry in sexually dimorphic traits may arise when larger trait sizes confer direct advantages in sexual competition (Green, 1992). More recent studies documenting sexual dimorphism across a wide array of taxa have found a diversity of patterns in static allometry underlying sexually selected traits. These studies have hypothesized that the function of sexually selected traits, and the life history of the organisms that possess them, may influence the evolution of their static allometry (Bonduriansky & Day, 2003; Bonduriansky, 2007).

STUDY SYSTEM

Apteronotid electric fishes (Apteronotidae: Gymnotiformes) represent an excellent case for the study of sexual dimorphism. In this clade, fishes exhibit a wide diversity of skull shapes ranging from highly foreshortened to highly elongate skulls, with each phenotype evolving multiple times independently (Evans *et al.*, 2017b, c). Amongst this diversity in skull shapes, an interesting pattern of sexual dimorphism has emerged: in some species, mature males grow elongate snouts and oral jaws for use in agonistic interactions (jaw-locking behaviours and aggressive displays) with conspecific males (Triefenbach & Zakon, 2008; Albert & Crampton, 2009) (Fig. 1). This particular form of sexual dimorphism is thought to have evolved multiple times independently within the family (Py-Daniel & Fernandes, 2005; Hilton & Cox-Fernandes, 2006; Albert & Crampton, 2009; Fernandes *et al.*, 2009a; Tagliacollo *et al.*, 2016). The developmental mechanisms that underlie growth of elongate snout and jaw phenotypes are less well-known, and appear to vary among gymnotiform species (Petzold & Smith, 2016). In some cases, sexual dimorphism is so pronounced that the sexes were initially classified as different species (Cox-Fernandes *et al.*, 2009; Fernandes *et al.*, 2009b).

Facial elongation in electric fishes also presents an interesting system for the study of sexual weaponry. From a functional perspective, the typical teleost jaw is an integrated system of levers and linkages that controls the opening and closing of the jaws in feeding and other activities (Westneat, 2003, 2004). There is an extensive literature that documents the biomechanical effects of changes in jaw-lever lengths, and the resulting functional consequences for kinematic transmission (Grubich, 2005; Hulsey *et al.*, 2005; Martinez & Sparks, 2017). The elongation of the snout and oral jaws in sexually dimorphic electric fishes may,

therefore, result in changes in the kinematic transmission of the jaws, as the relative lengths of jaw levers may vary ontogenetically between the sexes. These changes in kinematic transmission may pose a trade-off between jaw-closing performance and the rostral length of an organism. Here, we explicitly define the term ‘trade-off’ as a negative residual correlation between a morphological and physiological variable, following the definition from Holzman *et al.* (2012).

Here we use three-dimensional geometric morphometrics to study the evolution of static allometry in sexually dimorphic phenotypes for two species of apteronotid electric fishes: *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*, both of which have been reported to exhibit aggressive jaw-locking behaviour between mature males (Triefenbach & Zakon, 2008; Albert & Crampton, 2009), and track allometric changes in kinematic transmission of the mandible between the sexes in each species. We hypothesize that the sexually dimorphic males of each species will exhibit differential patterns of allometry relative to conspecific females and that males will differ significantly from females in kinematic transmission of their respective mandibles as a result of their facial elongation.

MATERIAL AND METHODS

ANCESTRAL STATE RECONSTRUCTION

The ancestral state of sexually dimorphic craniofacial elongation was reconstructed for 93 species of Apteronotidae using the Bayesian approach of stochastic character mapping [*sensu* Bollback (2006) in the *R*-package: PHYTOOLS (Revell, 2012)]. Character history was modelled as a discrete trait under an ‘equal rates’ transition matrix model using the Tagliacollo *et al.* (2016) phylogeny, pruned in the *r*-package APE (Paradis *et al.*, 2004) to include only the 93 apteronotid taxa. Transition frequencies of ancestral states were estimated from 1000 simulations and plotted at each node of the phylogeny. Sexually dimorphic data were gathered from the literature for all available apteronotid species. We considered the sexually dimorphic pattern of *Sternarchogiton nattereri* (where males grow robust dentition from their upper and lower jaws) as a form of craniofacial elongation because the skull and jaws also elongate in mature males, although to a lesser degree (Cox-Fernandes *et al.*, 2009).

SPECIMEN SELECTION AND PREPARATION

Apteronotus rostratus and *C. samueli* are allopatric and occur in different habitats. As a result, collection methods differed dramatically between species in this study. *Apteronotus rostratus* is only known



Figure 1. CT scans of male and female *Compsaraia samueli* and *Apteronotus rostratus* specimens showing secondary sexually-dimorphic differences in cranial shapes. Note males (B, D) with more elongate facial phenotypes, and females (A, C) with relatively foreshortened facial phenotypes.

from Panama and Colombia where it inhabits small streams and fast-flowing creeks (Gogarten *et al.*, 2008; Santana & Vari, 2013). A total of 31 (12 male and 19 female) specimens were collected in the Chepo region of Panama during the dry season (December–March 2016) using dip nets aided by electric-fish finders to target individuals. To increase sample size, specimens collected in the field during this period were pooled with 26 museum specimens (five males, 21 females) from the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute (STRI) collected from nearby (Supporting Information, Table S1).

Compsaraia samueli is endemic to the Amazon River basin where it inhabits deep river channels (Albert & Crampton, 2009; Bernt & Albert, 2017). A total of 49 (26 male and 23 female) specimens were collected from the area near Iquitos, Peru, during the high- and low-water periods (August 2015–January 2017) using purse seines pulled between two wooden canoes. Specimens of both species were dissected, and gonads inspected to determine sex. All specimens of both species were humanely euthanized using an overdose of MS-222, fixed in 10% unbuffered formalin for at least 48 h in a flat covered tray, washed in water twice for 24 h each, then transferred to 70% ethanol for long-time storage. All collected specimens were deposited at the Academy of Natural Sciences in Philadelphia (Supporting Information, Table S1).

The study of static allometry can be heavily influenced by geographic variation (Pélabon *et al.*, 2014; Voje *et al.*, 2014). Studies involving fishes can be particularly sensitive to these effects because they exhibit indeterminate growth that may be influenced by variation in local conditions (Evans *et al.*, 2017b). To reduce the effects of geographic variation, we limited our study to include only specimens of each species collected from localities separated by less than 15 km.

MICRO-CT SCANNING

Specimens of *A. rostratus* and *C. samueli* are rare in museum collections. It was, therefore, unfeasible to clear and stain or otherwise dissect individuals, as this process permanently alters specimens (Taylor & Van Dyke, 1985). Instead, we used micro-CT scanning to capture the fine-scale osteological properties of individuals. This technique produced high-resolution images of the internal anatomy of specimens while leaving them unperturbed. For *A. rostratus*, a size series of 30 specimens (49–212 mm total length) was scanned at the University of Texas, Austin (UT), using a custom-built scanner by North Star Imaging (NSI) at 180 kV, 114–115 μ A and 19–49 μ m voxel size. The remaining 27 specimens were scanned at the University of Washington Friday Harbor Labs (UW) Karl Liem Memorial Bio-Imaging Facility in conjunction with the

‘ScanAllFishes’ project using a Bruker Skyscan 1173 at 70 kV, 114 μ A and 28.2 μ m voxel size. For *C. samueli*, a size series of 49 specimens (67–194 mm total length) were scanned at (UW) at 65–70 kV, 114–123

Table 1. Landmark definitions for the three-dimensional geometric morphometric analysis of skull shape for *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*

Landmark #	Landmark description
1	Mesethmoid-anterior-most tip
2	Mesethmoid-ventral ethmoid-mesethmoid ventral margin
3	Ventral ethmoid-ventral ethmoid-parasphenoid margin
4	Ventral ethmoid-ventral ethmoid-mesethmoid dorsal margin
5	Frontal-mesethmoid-frontal margin
6	Orbitosphenoid-anterior-most orbitosphenoid-frontal margin
7	Orbitosphenoid-anterior-most orbitosphenoid-parasphenoid margin
8	Pterosphenoid-orbitosphenoid-pterospheoid-frontal margin
9	Pterosphenoid-orbitosphenoid-pterospheoid ventral margin
10	Parasphenoid-posterior -most orbitosphenoid-parasphenoid margin
11	Parasphenoid-pterospheoid-parasphenoid margin
12	Parietal-lateral-most parietal-frontal suture
13	Prootic-prootic foramen
14	Supraoccipital-posterior-most projection of supraoccipital crest
15	Supraoccipital-exoccipital-supraoccipital margin
16	Basioccipital-posterior-ventral-most point of basioccipital
17	Basioccipital-posterior-most-parasphenoid-basioccipital margin
18	Frontal-anterior-most segment of anterior fontanel
19	Frontal-posterior-most segment of anterior fontanel
20	Frontal-anterior-most segment of posterior fontanel
21	Parietal-posterior-most segment of anterior fontanel
22	Dentary-anterior-most tooth
23	Dentary-dorsal-most-dentary-angular-margin
24	Angular-centre of jaw joint
25	Retroarticular-posterior-ventral-most point on retroarticular

uA, 24–35.7 μm voxel size, 1175–1200 ms exposure, and a CCD sensitivity of 2240×2240 pixels. All micro-CT scans of both species are freely available for download from Open Science Framework at: osf.io/m8tqe.

THREE-DIMENSIONAL GEOMETRIC MORPHOMETRICS

To study the allometric shape changes of the skull between sexes of the two species, we used three-dimensional geometric morphometrics performed on isosurfaces rendered from micro-CT slice data. Image stacks were imported into Stratovan Checkpoint and converted to three-dimensional isosurfaces to capture the surface properties of the bone. The left side of each specimen was digitized with 25 landmarks (LM) and exported to MorphoJ (Klingenberg,

2011) for subsequent statistical analysis (Table 1; Fig. 2A–D).

NEUROCRANIAL ALLOMETRIC TRAJECTORIES

To remove the effect of differential scaling and orientation in the shape data, a full Procrustes superimposition was performed in MorphoJ. Procrustes coordinates were then used to study the allometric relationship between skull shape and log-transformed centroid-size. Variation in allometric slopes between sexes was assessed in the R-package GEOMORPH (Adams & Otárola-Castillo, 2013) using the ‘procD.allometry’ function, which implements a Procrustes ANOVA to test against the null hypothesis of parallel or homogenous slopes between the sexes of the two

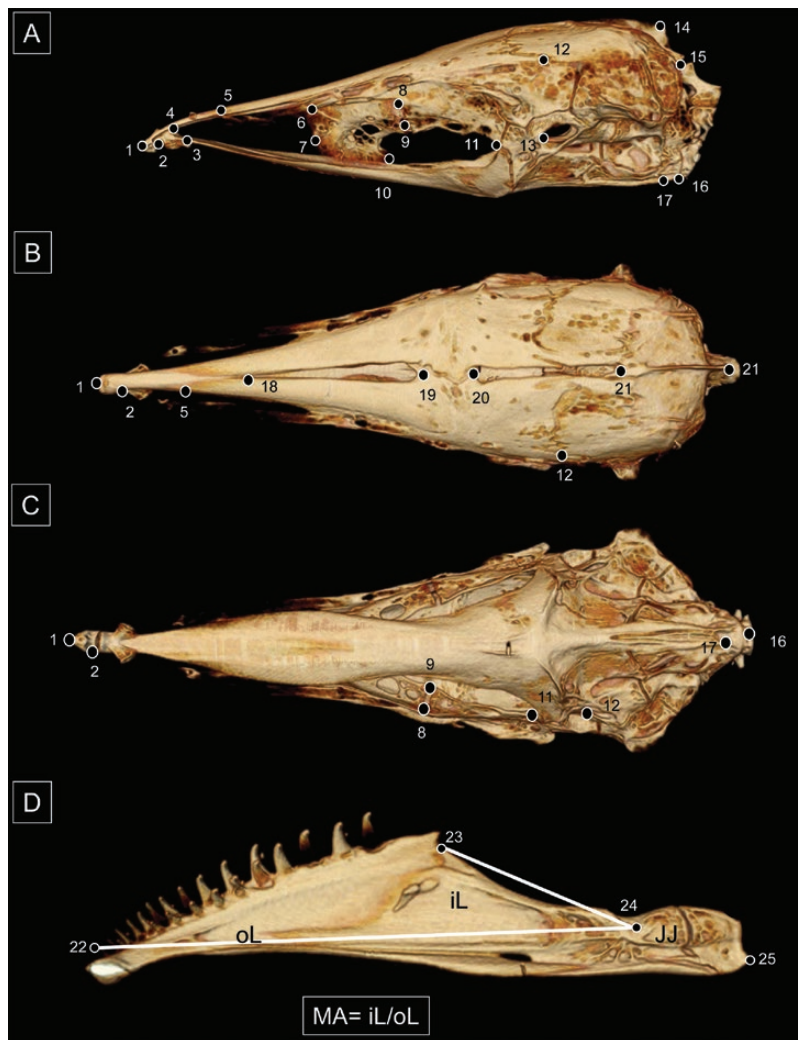


Figure 2. CT scans of *Aptereronotus rostratus* (ANSP 200222) in lateral (A), dorsal (B), ventral (C) and mandibular (D) views showing 25 three-dimensional landmarks used for the geometric morphometric analysis of *Compsaraia samueli* and *Aptereronotus rostratus* and in-lever (iL) and out-lever (oL) measurements taken from the jaw joint (JJ). Abbreviation: MA, mechanical advantage.

species. Allometric slopes are displayed using a predicted shape vs. log(centroid-size) regression and a common allometric component (CAC) vs. log(centroid-size) regression. A predicted shape regression calculates the predicted values of a regression of shape on size and plots the first principal component scores of the predicted values in the form of an allometric trend (Adams & Nistri, 2010). The CAC approach performs a pooled regression of shape variables corrected, in this case, for the different means between sexes of both species and estimates the average allometric trend within groups (Mitteroecker *et al.*, 2004). Here we quantify size as the log(centroid size) of skull shape. Electric fishes possess the ability to regenerate a significant portion of their bodies after being damaged by predation. As a result, total length is often a poor estimate of size; to correct for this, dimensions of head length are frequently utilized as a proxy for overall size (Albert, 2001; Bernt & Albert, 2017; Evans *et al.*, 2017a, 2018).

ESTIMATING PERFORMANCE OF THE MANDIBLE

During agonistic jaw-locking interactions in electric fishes, individuals typically bite the heads, flanks and tails of conspecifics. They may also interlock their jaws and push linearly or twist laterally upon making contact (depending on the species) (Triefenbach & Zakon, 2008; Albert & Crampton, 2009). Due to the importance of the closing action of the jaws during these bouts, we hypothesize that the relative jaw-closing performance of individuals is a major factor in determining the winner of aggressive interactions between rival males. To model this, we estimate the jaw-closing performance of the mandible using a simple model of kinematic transmission: closing mechanical advantage (MA). Closing mechanical advantage is quantified as the ratio between the closing in-lever distance (distance between the dorsal insertion of the A2 sub-unit of the adductor mandibulae muscle and the articulation of the jaw joint) and out-lever distance (distance between jaw joint and most anterior tooth) (Westneat, 2004), such that $MA = iL/oL$ (Fig. 2D).

Changes in MA can have dramatic effects on force transmission and relative velocity transfer, where higher mechanical advantages in the lower jaw correspond to greater force transmission, while lower mechanical advantages correspond to less forceful transmissions but faster jaw closing (Wainwright *et al.*, 1991; Westneat, 2003; Holzman *et al.*, 2012; Kolmann *et al.*, 2018). Here we study the allometric scaling of log-transformed MA with log-transformed centroid-size and lower jaw shape (LM 22–25; subset from the total landmark configuration) in male and female specimens of *A. rostratus* and *C. samueli* to test for differences in slopes between sexes in each species and identify potential trade-offs in kinematic transmission associated with jaw elongation.

VIDEO RECORDINGS OF BEHAVIOUR

Agonistic interactions between *C. samueli* males were filmed at the 'Amazon Tropicals' aquarium store in Iquitos, Peru. Individuals were collected by aquarium fishermen and housed in 40-gallon aquaria, where they were subsequently filmed by the authors using a GoPro Hero 5 at 240 fps. Videos were rendered at 60 fps using Adobe Premier Pro Creative Cloud. Video recordings were not available for *A. rostratus* due to high mortality rates experienced shortly after capture for this species.

RESULTS

SEXUAL DIMORPHISM IN APTERONOTIDAE

Within Aptereronotidae, the pattern of sexually dimorphic craniofacial elongation has evolved multiple times independently (Fig. 3). Stochastic character mapping reveals that this pattern evolved independently in *Parapteronotus*, twice independently in *Apteronotus*

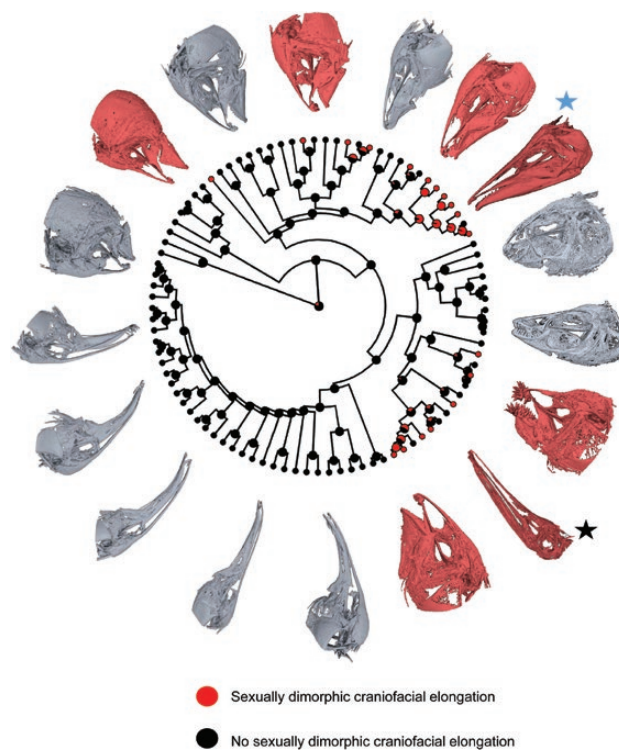


Figure 3. Evolution of craniofacial elongation in sexually dimorphic phenotypes in Aptereronotidae. Stochastic character map summary of 1000 simulations showing the independent evolutionary transitions towards sexually dimorphic craniofacial elongation in the gymnotiform family Aptereronotidae (93 spp.). Insets depict skulls of representative species from each clade. Stars denote species included in this study: *Apteronotus rostratus* (blue), *Compsaraia samueli* (black).

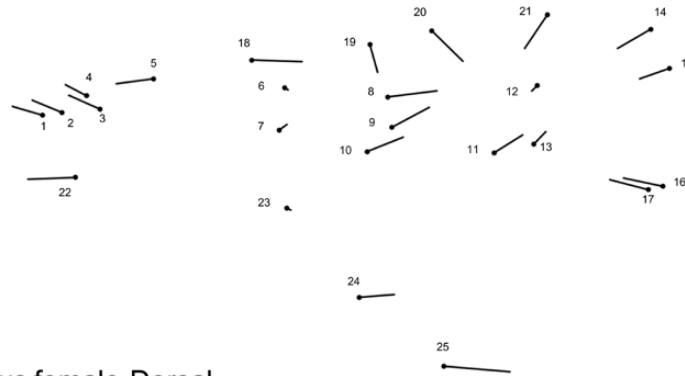
(*A. albifrons* clade and *A. leptorhynchus* clade) and up to six times within other apteronotid clades. Additionally, we find that the two focal species of this study (*A. rostratus* and *C. samueli*) independently evolved their respective patterns of secondary sexual dimorphism.

CRANIAL ALLOMETRY IN *APTERONOTUS ROSTRATUS*

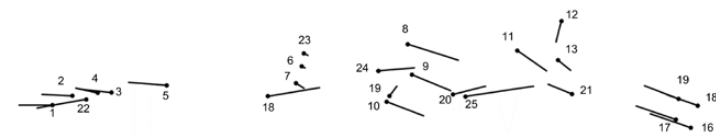
The allometric deformations of male and female *A. rostratus* exhibit a common pattern seen across other

electric fish species, where the facial region (LM 1–10, 18–19) expands, while the braincase (LM 11–17, 20–21) contracts relative to the face (i.e. heterocephaly; *sensu Evans et al., 2017b; Fig. 4*). While this overall pattern is shared between the two sexes, other more localized differences are also apparent. Females exhibit less allometric facial expansion than males (evidenced by shorter vectors). Males also exhibit a more pronounced elongation of the posterior margin of the mandible encompassing the angular and retroarticular bones (LM 24 and 25).

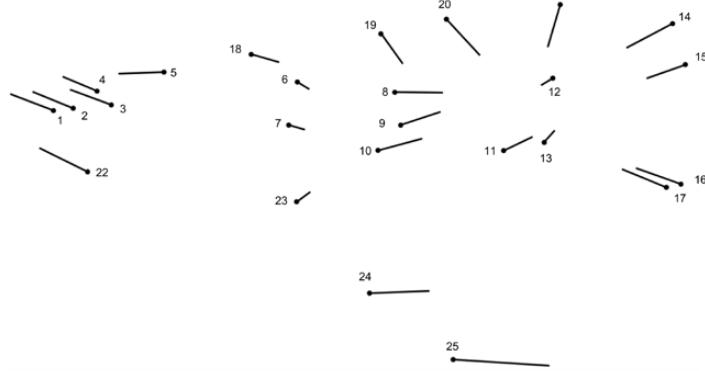
A. rostratus female-Lateral



A. rostratus female-Dorsal



A. rostratus male-Lateral



A. rostratus male-Dorsal

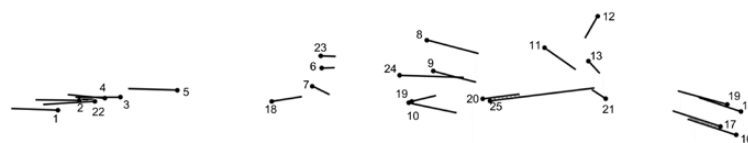


Figure 4. Allometric shape deformations for female and male *Apteronotus rostratus* specimens in lateral and dorsal views. Vectors indicate direction of landmark deformation from ball to stick.

CRANIAL ALLOMETRY IN *COMPARSARAIA SAMUELI*

Differences in allometric deformation between male and female *C. samueli* are more pronounced than in *A. rostratus* (Fig. 5). Here, both males and females also exhibit heterocephaly. However, females exhibit a unique downward deflection of the facial region, while males exhibit an opposing and more common pattern in gymnotiform fishes in which the face extends both dorsally and anteriorly. In comparison to males, females exhibit a greatly reduced allometric contraction of the braincase, which results in a comparatively larger braincase in adult female specimens. Males and females also differ drastically in patterns of mandible growth. Here males elongate both the anterior and posterior regions of the mandible (LM 22, 24 and

25), while females, in contrast, exhibit relatively little change in mandible shape during growth.

STATIC ALLOMETRIC TRAJECTORIES IN *APTERONOTUS ROSTRATUS*

The allometric trajectories of male and female *A. rostratus* specimens exhibit significant differences. Size explains 56.2% of the total shape variance, while sex explains 1.6% (Table 2). A homogeneity of slopes test found a significant ($P = 0.002$) difference between allometric slopes, suggesting non-parallel slopes between the sexes. A Procrustes ANOVA found significant ($P = 0.020$) shape differences between males and females and a significant ($P = 0.006$) interaction

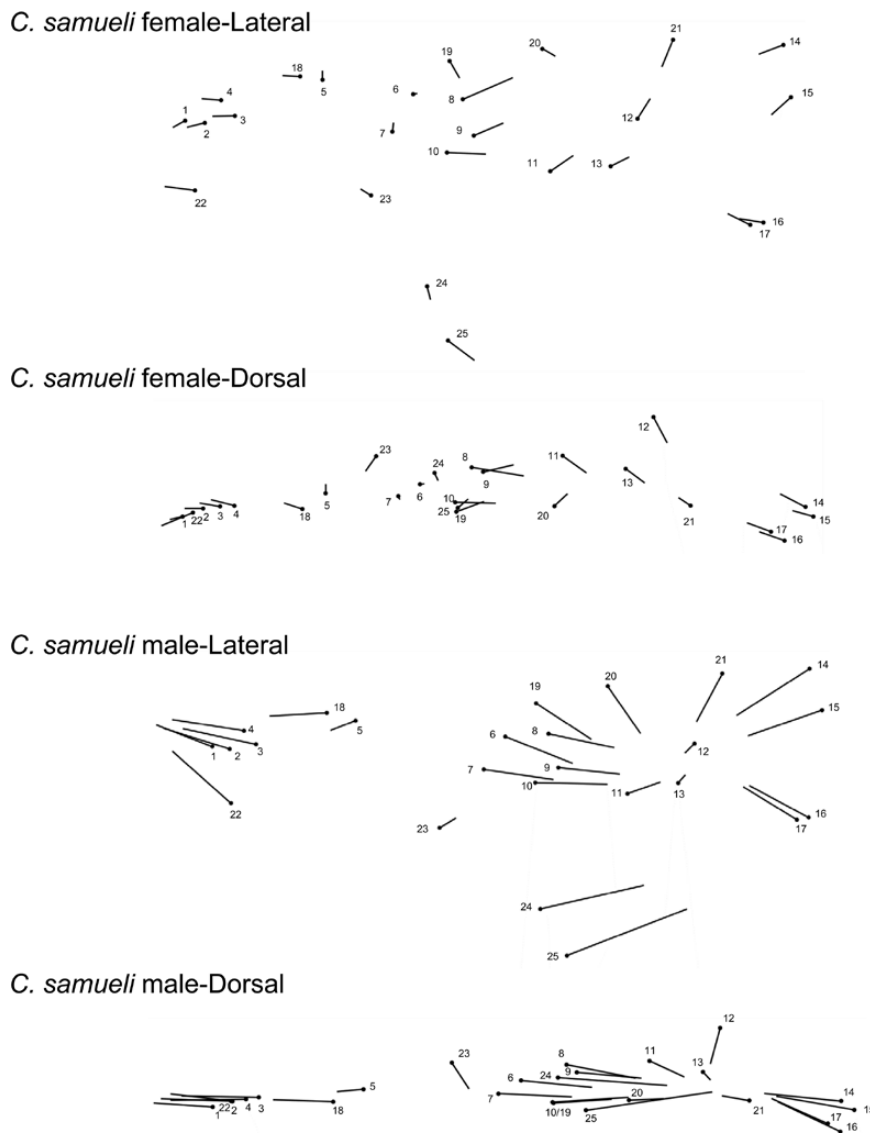


Figure 5. Allometric shape deformations for female and male *Compsaraia samueli* specimens in lateral and dorsal views. Graphical conventions as in Figure 4.

Table 2. Homogeneity of slopes test and Procrustes analysis of variance for ontogenetic trajectories of male and female *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*. Bold values indicate statistical significance ($P < 0.05$)

Homogeneity of Slopes Test							
<i>A. rostratus</i>	Df	SSE	SS	R2	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Common Allometry	55	0.2161					
Group Allometries	53	0.1983	0.018	0.036	2.379	2.207	0.002
	Df	SS	MS	Rsqr	F	Z	Pr(>F)
log(size)	1	0.277	0.277	0.562	74.038	19.548	0.001
sex	1	0.008	0.008	0.016	2.102	1.898	0.020
log(size):sex	1	0.010	0.010	0.020	2.451	2.464	0.006
Residuals	53	0.198	0.004				
Total	56	0.493					
<i>C. samueli</i>	Df	SSE	SS	R2	F	Z	Pr(>F)
Common Allometry	47	0.307					
Group Allometries	45	0.217	0.090	0.070	9.285	6.320	0.001
	Df	SS	MS	Rsqr	F	Z	Pr(>F)
log(size)	1	0.977	0.977	0.761	202.485	17.428	0.001
sex	1	0.023	0.023	0.018	4.665	2.933	0.010
log(size):sex	1	0.067	0.067	0.052	13.905	9.359	0.001
Residuals	45	0.217	0.005				
Total	48	1.284					

between size and sex. Males exhibit more positive allometric slopes than females, suggesting a faster rate of shape change relative to females (Fig. 6).

STATIC ALLOMETRIC TRAJECTORIES IN *COMPSARAIA SAMUELI*

Allometric trajectories of male and female *C. samueli* also exhibit significant differences (Fig. 7). Size explains 76.1% of the total shape variance, while sex explains 1.8% (Table 2). A homogeneity of slopes test found a significant ($P = 0.001$) difference between allometric slopes, indicating non-parallel slopes between males and females. A Procrustes ANOVA found significant ($P = 0.010$) shape differences between males and females, and significant ($P = 0.001$) size differences. Similar to *A. rostratus*, male *C. samueli* also exhibit a more positive allometric slope than females, and experience a faster rate of shape-change relative to females.

MECHANICAL ADVANTAGE IN *APTERONOTUS ROSTRATUS*

Mechanical advantage is negatively ($r = -0.48$) correlated with size in *A. rostratus* ($P < 0.001$) (Table 3; Fig. 8A). A significant relationship was found between lower jaw shape and MA ($P = 0.001$) (Fig. 9A). However, no significant ($P = 0.139$) interaction was

found between MA and sex, indicating that males and females exhibit similar MA during growth (Table 4).

MECHANICAL ADVANTAGE IN *COMPSARAIA SAMUELI*

Mechanical advantage was significantly ($P < 0.001$) correlated with size for both males and females of *C. samueli* (Table 3; Fig. 8B). Interestingly, males and females differ significantly ($P < 0.001$) in the allometric slopes of MA, where females exhibit a positive slope ($r = 0.53$), while males exhibit a negative slope ($r = -0.43$) (Table 3). A significant ($P = 0.001$), relationship was found between lower jaw shape and MA. Significant differences were also recovered between the sexes ($P = 0.005$). Here, females exhibit a positive slope ($r = 0.53$), while males exhibit a negative slope ($r = -0.43$) (Table 4; Fig. 9B). These results suggest that as males grow more elongate lower jaws, they sacrifice more efficient bite force transmissions.

AGONISTIC INTERACTIONS IN *COMPSARAIA SAMUELI*

In the footage of male *C. samueli*, we observed several instances of agonistic interactions between males (Fig. 10A; Supporting Information, Movie S1). In these bouts, males were observed biting the heads, flanks and tails of other males. Additionally, males were observed locking jaws and pushing linearly with little or no twisting. Bouts were typically short (lasting around

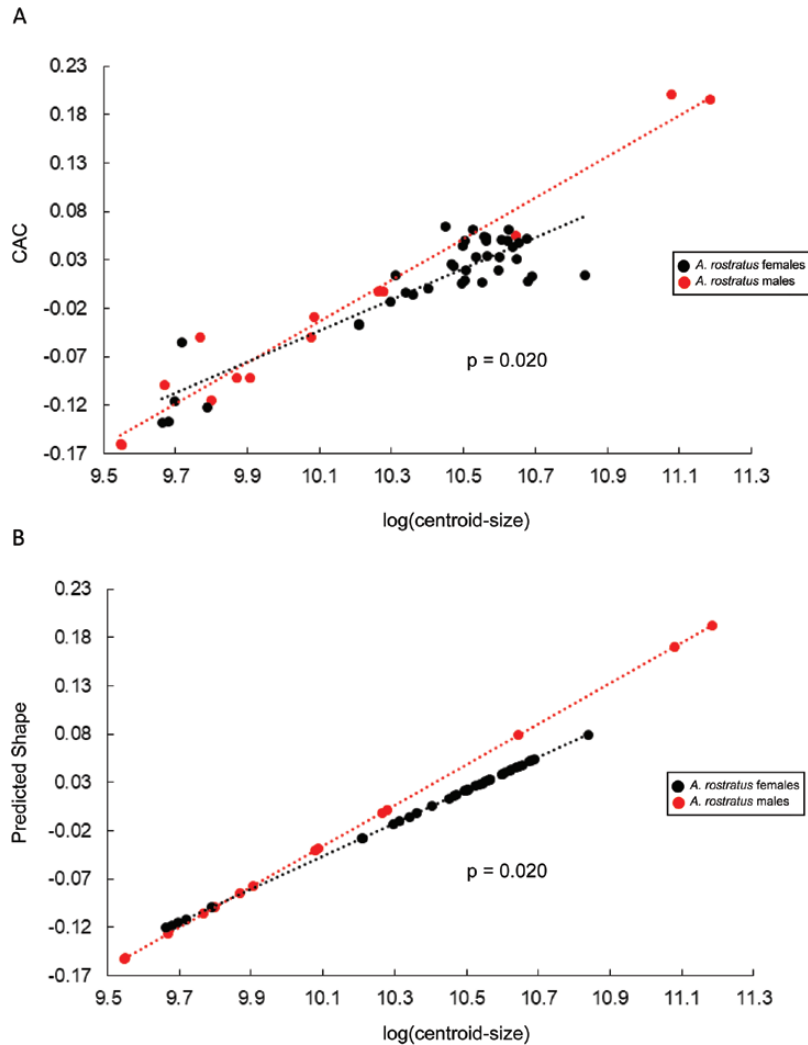


Figure 6. Allometric trajectories for male and female specimens of *Apteronotus rostratus* showing both common allometric components (A) and predicted shape (B).

two seconds) and never resulted in noticeable injuries to either participant. We also observed, for the first time in this species, a unique jaw-quivering behaviour, where males oscillate their lower jaws before and after engaging in physical contact. Additionally, we find that the jaws are used in an apparent display manner in which males open their jaws beyond 90° and face rival males without making physical contact (Fig. 10B).

DISCUSSION

POSITIVE ALLOMETRY IN THE SEXUAL WEAPONRY OF ELECTRIC FISHES

We find that both *A. rostratus* and *C. samueli* exhibit an independently evolved form of sexually dimorphic cranial elongation (Fig. 3). Interestingly, despite the independent origins of this phenotype, we recover a key

similarity between species in the developmental trajectories of sexually dimorphic males. Here, the underlying allometric trajectories that build the sexually dimorphic phenotypes of *A. rostratus* and *C. samueli* both exhibit more positive slopes in males relative to females. This suggests that males exhibit higher rates of shape change relative to size than do females. These findings are also consistent with the hypothesis that sexually selected traits evolve more positive slopes relative to non-sexually selected traits (Darwin, 1888; Gould, 1966, 1971; Andersson, 1994; Emlen & Nijhout, 2000).

THE SCALING OF MECHANICAL ADVANTAGE DIFFERS AMONG SPECIES

Notable scaling differences in MA were observed among species. In *C. samueli*, jaw shape in males is negatively correlated with MA, while females exhibit

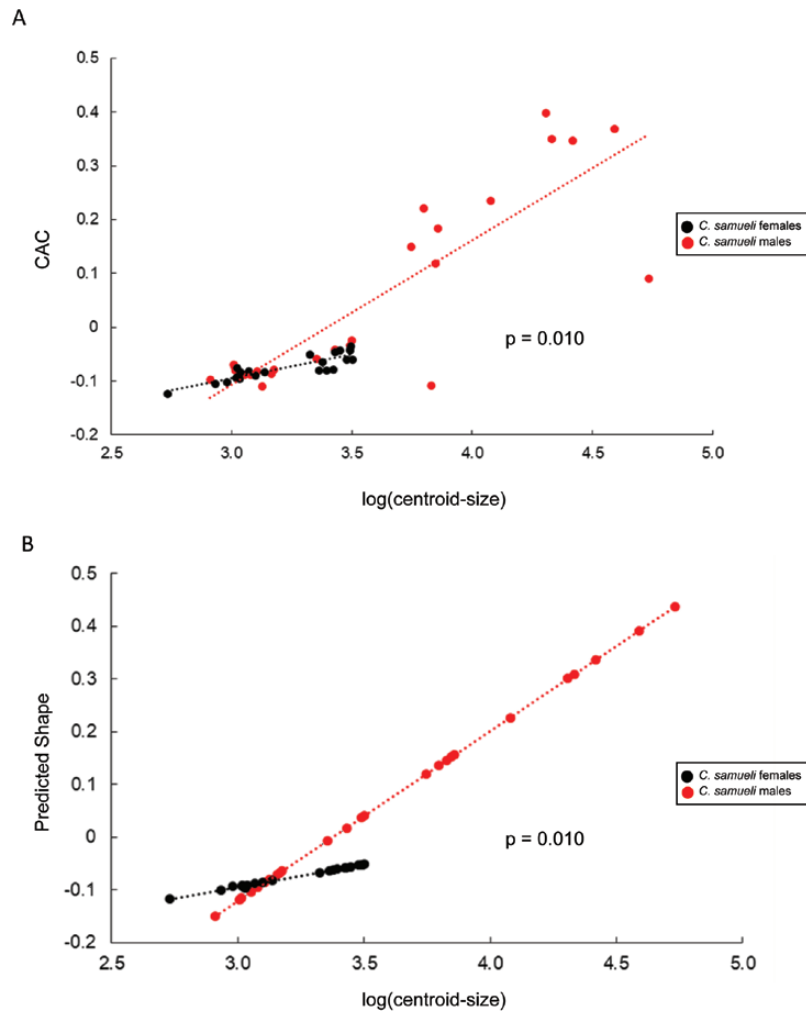


Figure 7. Allometric trajectories for female and male specimens of *Compsaraia samuelli* showing both common allometric components (A) and predicted shape (B).

Table 3. Analysis of variance for the effect of $\log(\text{centroid-size})$ and sex on mechanical advantage for *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samuelli*. Bold values indicate statistical significance ($P < 0.05$)

<i>A. rostratus</i>	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
size	1	0.059	0.059	16.882	<0.001
sex	1	0.002	0.002	0.535	0.4677
size:sex	1	0.010	0.010	2.733	0.1042
Residuals	53	0.186	0.004		
<i>C. samuelli</i>	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
size	1	0.129	0.129	15.030	<0.001
sex	1	0.116	0.116	13.510	<0.001
size:sex	1	0.053	0.053	6.150	0.017
Residuals	45	0.385	0.009		

an inverse pattern. This reduction in MA suggests that sexually dimorphic males have weaker jaw-closing forces than females (assuming similar muscle CSA

and muscle insertion angles). This also suggests a performance trade-off, where males with elongate lower jaws sacrifice more forceful biting commensurate

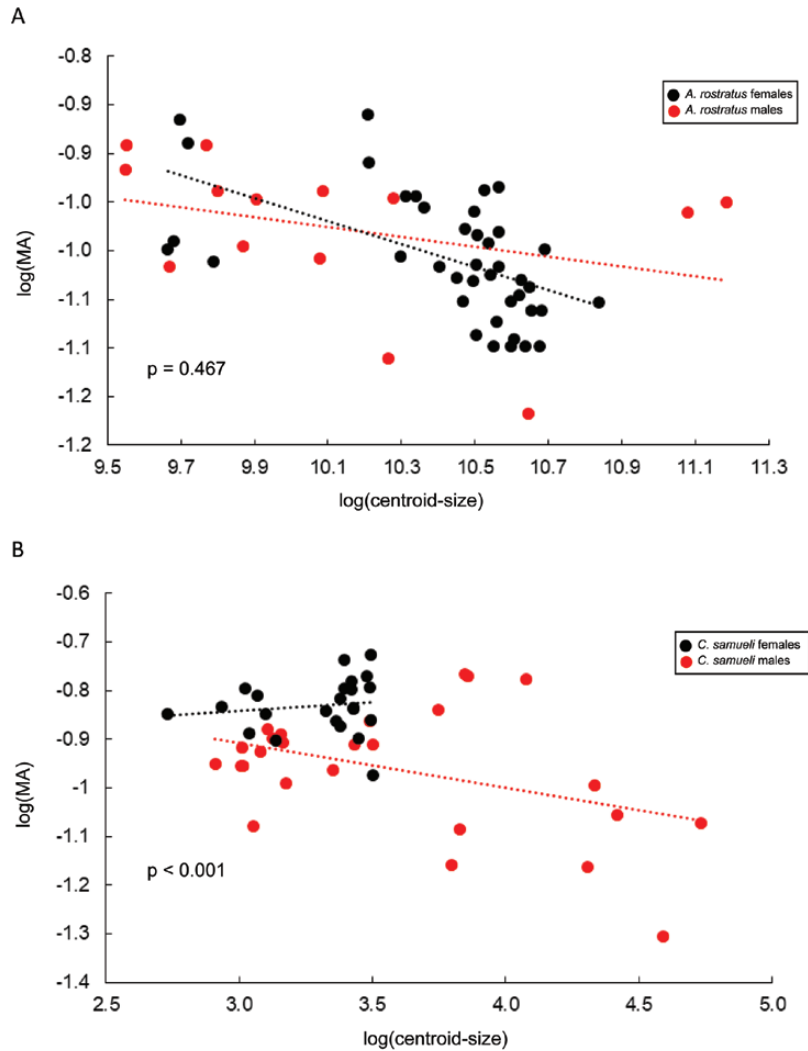


Figure 8. Allometric trajectories of lower jaw mechanical advantage (MA) in *Apteronotus rostratus* (A) and *Compsaraia samueli* (B).

with shorter jaws. This pattern is sharply contrasted with *A. rostratus*, which undergoes a reduction in MA with increasing body sizes, but exhibit no differences in MA between males and females. It is important to note that our estimation of jaw-closing performance assumes a constant muscle CSA between sexes, which may not necessarily reflect a biological reality. It is, therefore, possible that male *C. samueli* increase muscle CSA to compensate for decreases in MA. However, given the narrow, laterally compressed shape of these fishes, expansion of the jaw adductor musculature is not probable. It is also important to note that our performance model only considered mechanical advantage at the anterior-most tooth of the lower jaw; this model is potentially limited because it does not capture the full range of load application along the jaw. In some instances, when electric fishes lock jaws during

combat, they bring almost the entire length of the jaw to bear. This suggests that the relative mechanical advantage at any (and every) point along the jaw is being realized. In order to more rigorously test this hypothesis, it will be necessary to incorporate muscle CSA and insertion angle to estimate bite forces between males and females, and model skull stresses during bending using finite element analysis *sensu* Rayfield (2007).

WHY THE LONG FACE?

The snout of *Compsaraia* illustrates a common finding of many studies of animal weaponry: where the practical functions of an exaggerated weapon are greatly diminished, and the phenotype instead serves more as an assessment tool for other males to

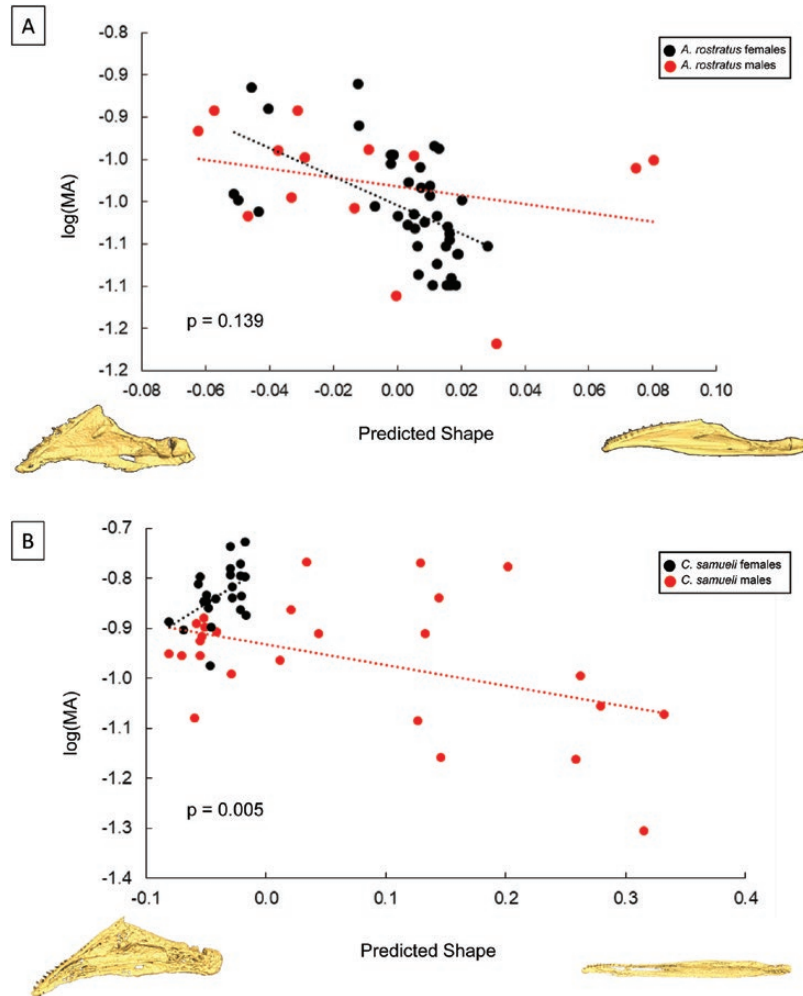


Figure 9. Scaling of lower jaw mechanical advantage and predicted jaw shape in *Apteronotus rostratus* (A) and *Compsaraia samueli* (B).

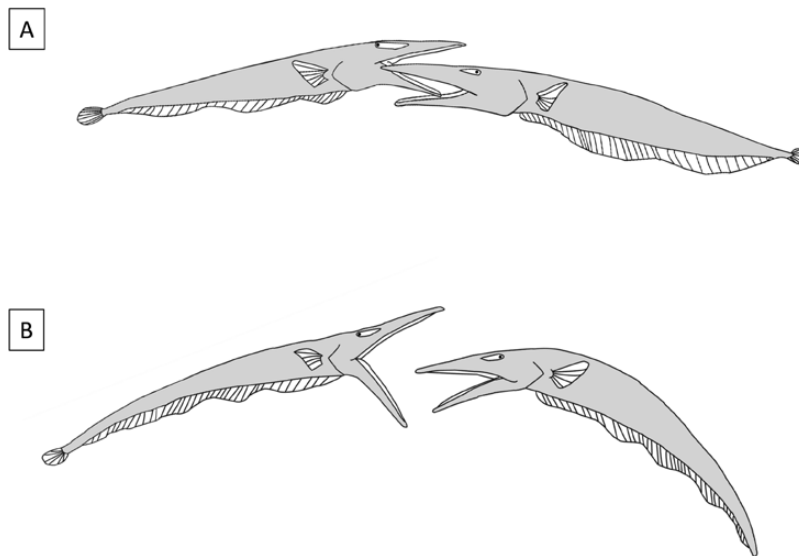
avoid serious conflict, and a signal in communication with potential mates (Arai & Sato, 2007; McCullough *et al.*, 2016). Support for the thesis that the rostrum of adult male *C. samueli* is functionally ceremonial rests on two lines of evidence: (1) the jaw's low mechanical advantage is not suitable for gripping or biting; and (2) the snout and jaws are poorly ossified and do not provide the structural rigidity needed for prolonged contests of strength, as compared to the more heavily ossified skulls of some other apteronotids (e.g. *A. rostratus*, Fig. 1). Even when sparring, *C. samueli* males face one another head-on, without any obvious rolling or twisting. Instead, males push each other linearly in contests analogous to sumo wrestling or tug-of-war, where opponents are pushed or pulled away from a central arena. Previous observations of *Apteronotus leptorhynchus* (a close relative of *A. rostratus*) indicate that males also engage in jaw

locking behaviors. However, unlike *C. samueli*, bouts between males were documented to last up to 15 minutes (Triefenbach & Zakon, 2008). Furthermore, *A. leptorhynchus* wrestling bouts include more twisting than they do in *C. samueli*, the latter of which are limited to pushing or pulling along the long axis of the body. This suggests that *C. samueli* utilize their elongate jaws more as a display or assessment tool rather than an actual weapon than is the case in *A. leptorhynchus* and *A. rostratus*, which engage in more prolonged and more physical bouts.

The elongate jaws of adult male *C. samueli* are like those of other elongate jaw-lever systems in being unsuitable for effective force transmission, i.e. less useful for fighting or feeding on hard or complex prey items (Porter & Motta, 2004; Habegger *et al.*, 2011; Goulet *et al.*, 2016). While reduced jaw leverage suggests that forceful biting or gripping are unlikely for

Table 4. Analysis of variance for the effect of jaw shape and sex on mechanical advantage for *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*. Bold values indicate statistical significance ($P < 0.05$)

<i>A. rostratus</i>	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
shape	1	0.051	0.003	14.472	0.001
sex	1	0.005	0.005	1.546	0.139
shape:sex	1	0.014	0.014	4.132	0.049
Residuals	45	0.238	0.004		
<i>C. samueli</i>	Df	Sum Sq	Mean Sq	F value	Pr(>F)
shape	1	0.196	0.196	22.799	<0.001
sex	1	0.074	0.074	8.645	0.005
shape:sex	1	0.028	0.028	3.250	0.097
Residuals	45	0.386	0.009		

**Figure 10.** Observed agonistic interactions between male *Compsaraia samueli* specimens showing (A) jaw-locking and (B) mouth-gaping behaviours.

C. samueli, low mechanical advantage also results in faster jaw-closing (higher velocity transfer), which is useful for capturing elusive or cryptic prey (Ferry-Graham *et al.*, 2001). However, *Compsaraia* do not have the laterally constrained oral gapes or cranial kinesis typical of high-performance suction feeders like anabantids (gouramis), embiotocids (surf perch) or other gymnotiforms (Marrero & Winemiller, 1993), or more ram-suction feeders like tube-snouted syngnathids (pipefishes and seahorses), mormyrids (elephant fishes) and chaetodontids (butterfly fishes) (Ferry-Graham *et al.*, 2001; Roos *et al.*, 2011; Longo *et al.*, 2016). As such, the snout of *Compsaraia* is poorly suited for either biting, suction-feeding or even for picking through benthic invertebrate meiofauna (Marrero & Winemiller, 1993).

Selection pressures for elongate jaws in *C. samueli* could reflect a ritualized use of the structure, in which the oral jaws are more ornamental and less useful as a functional weapon. Larger, more exaggerated features are typical of high-quality males, and can serve to signal rivals that their competitor is robust, capable of defending a resource and not worth contesting (Emlen *et al.*, 2012; Dennenmoser & Christy, 2013; McCullough *et al.*, 2016). Some specimens of mature male *C. samueli* and *A. leptorhynchus* have been observed opening their jaws beyond 90°, presumably to display to rivals before and after physical contact. This ‘mouth gaping’ behaviour has been documented in other fish species (Ward, 1967; Dow *et al.*, 1976; Figler & Klauenberg, 1980; McFarland & Hillis, 1982; Summers *et al.*, 2004; Ritter, 2008) where it is thought

to serve a display/signalling function associated with agonistic interactions.

CONCLUSION

The static allometric relationships that build the independently evolved sexual weaponry of *A. rostratus* and *C. samueli* both exhibit more positive slopes in males than in females, indicating that males undergo a faster rate of shape change during growth from juvenile to adults. Despite these similarities, we find that the performance consequences of facial elongation are not shared between these species. We find that male *C. samueli* experience a reduction in mechanical advantage (which differs significantly from females) as the lower oral jaw elongates, while male *A. rostratus* do not differ from females in mechanical advantage during growth. Differences in the mechanical advantage of the sexual weaponry between these two species suggests that these species utilize their jaws in slightly different ways during agonistic interactions and may reflect a functional gradient between armament and ornamentation that is seen across other taxa.

ACKNOWLEDGEMENTS

We thank Brandon Waltz, Eric Hilton, Andrew Simons and William Crampton for their fruitful discussions about sexual dimorphism in electric fishes. We thank Ruth Reina and the Smithsonian Tropical Research Institute for their assistance with the collection of *Apteronotus rostratus* specimens. We also thank Eric Nautino-Silvano for their assistance in collecting *Compsaraia samueli* specimens. Ashley Mays assisted with initial video rendering. Adam Summers and the #scanAllFishes project allowed us to CT-scan specimens for free. Supported by United States National Science Foundation awards DEB 0614334, 0741450, and 1354511 to JSA, a Friday Harbor Labs post-doctoral fellowship to MAK, and University of Minnesota, College of Agricultural and Natural Resource Sciences development funds to KME.

REFERENCES

- Adams DC, Nistri A. 2010.** Ontogenetic convergence and evolution of foot morphology in European cave salamanders (Family: Plethodontidae). *BMC Evolutionary Biology* **10**: 1.
- Adams DC, Otárola-Castillo E. 2013.** geomorph: an R package for the collection and analysis of geometric morphometric shape data. *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **4**: 393–399.
- Albert JS. 2001.** *Species diversity and phylogenetic systematics of American knifefishes (Gymnotiformes, Teleostei)*. Ann Arbor, MI: Division of Ichthyology, Museum of Zoology, University of Michigan.
- Albert JS, Crampton WG. 2009.** A new species of electric knifefish, genus *Compsaraia* (Gymnotiformes: Apterontidae) from the Amazon River, with extreme sexual dimorphism in snout and jaw length. *Systematics and Biodiversity* **7**: 81–92.
- Andersson MB. 1994.** *Sexual selection*. Princeton, NJ: Princeton University Press.
- Arai H, Sato T. 2007.** Prominent ornaments and rapid color change: use of horns as a social and reproductive signal in unicornfish (Acanthuridae: *Naso*). *Ichthyological Research* **54**: 49–54.
- Berglund A, Bisazza A, Pilastro A. 1996.** Armaments and ornaments: an evolutionary explanation of traits of dual utility. *Biological Journal of the Linnean Society* **58**: 385–399.
- Bernt MJ, Albert JS. 2017.** A new species of deep-channel electric knifefish *Compsaraia* (Apterontidae, Gymnotiformes) from the Amazon River. *Copeia* **105**: 211–219.
- Bollback JP. 2006.** SIMMAP: stochastic character mapping of discrete traits on phylogenies. *BMC Bioinformatics* **7**: 88.
- Bonduriansky R. 2007.** Sexual selection and allometry: a critical reappraisal of the evidence and ideas. *Evolution* **61**: 838–849.
- Bonduriansky R, Day T. 2003.** The evolution of static allometry in sexually selected traits. *Evolution* **57**: 2450–2458.
- Cheverud JM. 1982.** Relationships among ontogenetic, static, and evolutionary allometry. *American Journal of Physical Anthropology* **59**: 139–149.
- Cox-Fernandes C, Lundberg JG, Sullivan JP. 2009.** *Oedemognathus exodon* and *Sternarchogiton nattereri* (Apterontidae, Gymnotiformes): the case for sexual dimorphism and conspecificity. *Proceedings of the Academy of Natural Sciences of Philadelphia* **158**: 193–207.
- Crespi BJ, Teo R. 2002.** Comparative phylogenetic analysis of the evolution of semelparity and life history in salmonid fishes. *Evolution* **56**: 1008–1020.
- Darwin C. 1888.** *The descent of man and selection in relation to sex*. London: Murray.
- Dennenmoser S, Christy JH. 2013.** The design of a beautiful weapon: compensation for opposing sexual selection on a trait with two functions. *Evolution* **67**: 1181–1188.
- Dow M, Ewing AW, Sutherland I. 1976.** Studies on the behaviour of cyprinodont fish. III. The temporal patterning of aggression in *Aphyosemion striatum* (Boulenger). *Behaviour* **59**: 252–268.
- Eberhard WG. 2009.** Static allometry and animal genitalia. *Evolution* **63**: 48–66.
- Emerson SB, Bramble DM. 1993.** Scaling, allometry, and skull design. *The Skull* **3**: 384–421.
- Emlen DJ. 2008.** The evolution of animal weapons. *Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics* **39**: 387–413.
- Emlen DJ, Hunt J, Simmons LW. 2005.** Evolution of sexual dimorphism and male dimorphism in the expression of beetle horns: phylogenetic evidence for modularity, evolutionary

- lability, and constraint. *The American Naturalist* **166**(Suppl 4): S42–S68.
- Emlen DJ, Nijhout HF. 2000.** The development and evolution of exaggerated morphologies in insects. *Annual Review of Entomology* **45**: 661–708.
- Emlen DJ, Warren IA, Johns A, Dworkin I, Lavine LC. 2012.** A mechanism of extreme growth and reliable signaling in sexually selected ornaments and weapons. *Science* **337**: 860–864.
- Evans KM, Crampton WG, Albert JS. 2017a.** Taxonomic revision of the deep channel electric fish genus *Sternarchella* (Teleostei: Gymnotiformes: Apterodontidae), with descriptions of two new species. *Neotropical Ichthyology* **15**.
- Evans KM, Waltz B, Tagliacollo V, Chakrabarty P, Albert JS. 2017b.** Why the short face? Developmental disintegration of the neurocranium drives convergent evolution in Neotropical electric fishes. *Ecology and Evolution* **7**: 1783–1801.
- Evans KM, Waltz BT, Tagliacollo VA, Sidlauskas BL, Albert JS. 2017c.** Fluctuations in evolutionary integration allow for big brains and disparate faces. *Scientific Reports* **7**: 40431.
- Evans KM, Savage AM, Albert JS. 2018.** Spinal abnormalities in a specimen of the Panamanian knifefish *Apterodontus rostratus* (Apterodontidae: Gymnotiformes) with comments on Gymnotiform locomotion. *Copeia* **106**: 130–134.
- Fernandes CC, Lundberg JG, Riginos C. 2009a.** Largest of all electric-fish snouts: hypermorphic facial growth in male *Apterodontus hasemani* and the identity of *Apterodontus anas* (Gymnotiformes: Apterodontidae). *Copeia* **2002**: 52–61.
- Fernandes CC, Lundberg JG, Riginos C. 2009b.** Largest of all electric-fish snouts: hypermorphic facial growth in male *Apterodontus hasemani* and the identity of *Apterodontus anas* (Gymnotiformes: Apterodontidae). *Copeia* **2002**: 52–61.
- Ferry-Graham LA, Wainwright PC, Bellwood DR. 2001.** Prey capture in long-jawed butterflyfishes (Chaetodontidae): the functional basis of novel feeding habits. *Journal of Experimental Marine Biology and Ecology* **256**: 167–184.
- Figler MH, Klauenberg BJ. 1980.** Pentobarbital sodium and attack behavior in male Siamese fighting fish. *Psychopharmacology* **69**: 207–208.
- Gogarten J, Bermingham E, Krahe R. 2008.** *The life of Apterodontus rostratus, a Panamanian species of weakly electric fish: a field study*. Unpublished honors thesis. McGill University, pp. 1–39.
- Gould SJ. 1966.** Allometry and size in ontogeny and phylogeny. *Biological Reviews* **41**: 587–640.
- Gould SJ. 1971.** Geometric similarity in allometric growth: a contribution to the problem of scaling in the evolution of size. *The American Naturalist* **105**: 113–136.
- Goulet CL, Smith HJ, Maie T. 2016.** Comparative lever analysis and ontogenetic scaling in esocid fishes: functional demands and constraints in feeding biomechanics. *Journal of Morphology* **277**: 1447–1458.
- Green AJ. 1992.** Positive allometry is likely with mate choice, competitive display and other functions. *Animal Behaviour* **43**: 170–172.
- Grubich JR. 2005.** Disparity between feeding performance and predicted muscle strength in the pharyngeal musculature of black drum, *Pogonias cromis* (Sciaenidae). *Environmental Biology of Fishes* **74**: 261–272.
- Gustafsson L, Qvarnström A, Sheldon BC. 1995.** Trade-offs between life-history traits and a secondary sexual character in male collared flycatchers. *Nature* **375**: 311–313.
- Habegger M, Motta P, Huber D, Deban S. 2011.** Feeding biomechanics in the Great Barracuda during ontogeny. *Journal of Zoology* **283**: 63–72.
- Hilton EJ, Cox-Fernandes C. 2006.** Sexual dimorphism in *Apterodontus bonapartii* (Gymnotiformes: Apterodontidae). *Copeia* **2006**: 826–833.
- Holzman R, Collar DC, Price SA, Hulsey CD, Thomson RC, Wainwright PC. 2012.** Biomechanical trade-offs bias rates of evolution in the feeding apparatus of fishes. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* **279**: 1287–1292.
- Hulsey CD, Fraser GJ, Strelman JT. 2005.** Evolution and development of complex biomechanical systems: 300 million years of fish jaws. *Zebrafish* **2**: 243–257.
- Kawano K. 2006.** Sexual dimorphism and the making of oversized male characters in beetles (Coleoptera). *Annals of the Entomological Society of America* **99**: 327–341.
- Klingenberg CP. 2011.** MorphoJ: an integrated software package for geometric morphometrics. *Molecular Ecology Resources* **11**: 353–357.
- Kolmann MA, Huie JM, Evans K, Summers AP. 2018.** Specialized specialists and the narrow niche fallacy: a tale of scale-feeding fishes. *Royal Society Open Science* **5**: 171581.
- Longo SJ, McGee MD, Oufiero CE, Waltzek TB, Wainwright PC. 2016.** Body ram, not suction, is the primary axis of suction-feeding diversity in spiny-rayed fishes. *The Journal of Experimental Biology* **219**: 119–128.
- Marrero C, Winemiller KO. 1993.** Tube-snouted gymnotiform and mormyrid fish: convergence of a specialized foraging mode in teleosts. *Environmental Biology of Fishes* **38**: 299–309.
- Martinez CM, Sparks JS. 2017.** Malagasy cichlids differentially limit impacts of body shape evolution on oral jaw functional morphology. *Evolution* **71**: 2219–2229.
- McCullough EL, Miller CW, Emlen DJ. 2016.** Why sexually selected weapons are not ornaments. *Trends in Ecology & Evolution* **31**: 742–751.
- McFarland WN, Hillis Z-M. 1982.** Observations on agonistic behavior between members of juvenile French and white grunts—family Haemulidae. *Bulletin of Marine Science* **32**: 255–268.
- Mitteroecker P, Gunz P, Bernhard M, Schaefer K, Bookstein FL. 2004.** Comparison of cranial ontogenetic trajectories among great apes and humans. *Journal of Human Evolution* **46**: 679–697.
- Paradis E, Claude J, Strimmer K. 2004.** APE: analyses of phylogenetics and evolution in R language. *Bioinformatics* **20**: 289–290.
- Pélabon C, Bolstad GH, Egset CK, Cheverud JM, Pavlicev M, Rosenqvist G. 2013.** On the relationship between ontogenetic and static allometry. *The American Naturalist* **181**: 195–212.
- Pélabon C, Firmat C, Bolstad GH, Voje KL, Houle D, Cassara J, Rouzic AL, Hansen TF. 2014.** Evolution of

- morphological allometry. *Annals of the New York Academy of Sciences* **1320**: 58–75.
- Petrie M. 1988.** Intraspecific variation in structures that display competitive ability: large animals invest relatively more. *Animal Behaviour* **36**: 1174–1179.
- Petrie M. 1992.** Are all secondary sexual display structures positively allometric and, if so, why? *Animal Behaviour* **43**: 173–175.
- Petzold JM, Smith GT. 2016.** Androgens regulate sex differences in signaling but are not associated with male variation in morphology in the weakly electric fish *Parapteronotus hasemani*. *Hormones and Behavior* **78**: 67–71.
- Porter HT, Motta PJ. 2004.** A comparison of strike and prey capture kinematics of three species of piscivorous fishes: Florida gar (*Lepisosteus platyrhincus*), redfin needlefish (*Strongylura notata*), and great barracuda (*Sphyraena barracuda*). *Marine Biology* **145**: 989–1000.
- Py-Daniel LHR, Fernandes CC. 2005.** Dimorfismo sexual em Siluriformes e Gymnotiformes (Ostariophysi) da Amazônia. *Acta Amazonica* **35**: 97–110.
- Quinn TP, Foote CJ. 1994.** The effects of body size and sexual dimorphism on the reproductive behaviour of sockeye salmon, *Oncorhynchus nerka*. *Animal Behaviour* **48**: 751–761.
- Rayfield EJ. 2007.** Finite element analysis and understanding the biomechanics and evolution of living and fossil organisms. *Annual Review of Earth and Planetary Sciences* **35**: 541–576.
- Revell LJ. 2012.** phytools: an R package for phylogenetic comparative biology (and other things). *Methods in Ecology and Evolution* **3**: 217–223.
- Ritter EK. 2008.** Mouth gaping behavior in Caribbean reef sharks, *Carcharhinus perezi*. *Marine and Freshwater Behaviour and Physiology* **41**: 161–167.
- Roos G, Van Wassenbergh S, Aerts P, Herrel A, Adriaens D. 2011.** Effects of snout dimensions on the hydrodynamics of suction feeding in juvenile and adult seahorses. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **269**: 307–317.
- Santana CD, Vari RP. 2013.** Brown ghost electric fishes of the *Apteronotus leptorhynchus* species-group (Ostariophysi, Gymnotiformes); monophyly, major clades, and revision. *Zoological Journal of the Linnean Society* **168**: 564–596.
- Schluter D, Price TD, Rowe L. 1991.** Conflicting selection pressures and life history trade-offs. *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B: Biological Sciences* **246**: 11–17.
- Stearns SC. 1989.** Trade-offs in life-history evolution. *Functional Ecology* **3**: 259–268.
- Summers AP, Ketcham RA, Rowe T. 2004.** Structure and function of the horn shark (*Heterodontus francisci*) cranium through ontogeny: development of a hard prey specialist. *Journal of Morphology* **260**: 1–12.
- Tagliacollo VA, Bernt MJ, Craig JM, Oliveira C, Albert JS. 2016.** Model-based total evidence phylogeny of Neotropical electric knifefishes (Teleostei, Gymnotiformes). *Molecular Phylogenetics and Evolution* **95**: 20–33.
- Taylor WR, Van Dyke G. 1985.** Revised procedures for staining and clearing small fishes and other vertebrates for bone and cartilage study. *Cybiurn* **9**: 107–119.
- Triefenbach FA, Zakon HH. 2008.** Changes in signalling during agonistic interactions between male weakly electric knifefish, *Apteronotus leptorhynchus*. *Animal Behaviour* **75**: 1263–1272.
- Voje KL, Hansen TF, Egset CK, Bolstad GH, Pélabon C. 2014.** Allometric constraints and the evolution of allometry. *Evolution* **68**: 866–885.
- Wainwright PC, Lauder GV, Osenberg CW, Mittelbach GG. 1991.** The functional basis of intraspecific trophic diversification in sunfishes. *The Unity of Evolutionary Biology* 515–528.
- Ward RW. 1967.** Ethology of the paradise fish, *Macropodus opercularis* I. Differences between domestic and wild fish. *Copeia* **1967**: 809–813.
- Westneat MW. 2003.** A biomechanical model for analysis of muscle force, power output and lower jaw motion in fishes. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **223**: 269–281.
- Westneat MW. 2004.** Evolution of levers and linkages in the feeding mechanisms of fishes. *Integrative and Comparative Biology* **44**: 378–389.
- Zahavi A. 1975.** Mate selection—a selection for a handicap. *Journal of Theoretical Biology* **53**: 205–214.

SUPPORTING INFORMATION

Additional Supporting Information may be found in the online version of this article at the publisher's web-site.

Table S1. Materials examined for 106 specimens of *Apteronotus rostratus* and *Compsaraia samueli*.

Movie S1. Agonistic jaw-locking behaviour between two captive male *Compsaraia samueli* specimens.